Notes for Algebraic Structures

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Notes for Algebraic Structures, taught Spring 2016 at Carnegie Mellon University, by Professor Clinton Conley.

Administrativia

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Grading. 20% HW, 20% $\times$ 2 midterms, 40% Final

Homework. Wednesday-Wednesday. Graded for completeness, one starred problem for which no collaboration of any type is allowed.
Most homework out of textbook ("D&F").

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The Integers

Lecture 1 (2016–01–11)

Notation. $\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ in this class.

Properties: Order, other things. Least element in a set S: $x \in S$ s.t. $\forall y \in S, x \leq y$
Addition $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$:

- Associativity $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$
- Identity $x + 0 = 0 + x = 0$
- Inversion $x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0$
- Commutativity $x + y = y + x$

Multiplication $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$:

- Associative
- Distributive
- Identity ("1")

Integer division: Assume x an integer and $y \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ then $\exists! d \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists! r \in \mathbb{Z} : 0 \leq r < y, x = d \cdot y + r$

Definition 1. $y|x$ "y divides x" iff $\exists d \in \mathbb{Z} : x = d \cdot y$.

E.g. $3|9, 4 \not| 7$.

Definition 2. d is a gcd of x and y if

- $d|x, d|y$
- If $c|x$ and $c|y$ then $c|d$

Lecture 2 (2016–01–13)

Definition 3. Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, denote by $\mathbb{Z}(a, b)$ the set $\{ax + by | x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Theorem 4 (Euclid, Bezout). *Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are nonzero and let d be the smallest positive element of $\mathbb{Z}(a, b)$, then d is the unique positive GCD of a and b.*

Proof. d is a gcd of a, b

(1) (Existance of positive GCD)
  (a) By integer division, $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 \leq r < d$ such that $a = qd + r$. If $r = 0$ then $d|a$, so done. Otherwise, suppose $0 < r < d$, so $r = a - qd$ since $d \in \mathbb{Z}(a, b)$, we may fix x, y st $d = ax + by$, meaning $r = a - q(ax + by) = a(1 - qx) + b(-qy)$, so $r \in \mathbb{Z}(a, b)$, meaning d was not the minimal positive element in $\mathbb{Z}(a, b)$, RAA. Thus, $d|a$
  (b) HW: If $c|a$ and $c|b$ then $c|(ax + by)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ Hence $c|d$

(2) (Uniqueness of positive GCD) Suppose d_1, d_2 are both positive gcds of a and b. $d_1 | d_2$ and $d_2 | d_1$ as they are both gcds. i.e., $\exists m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $d_2 = md_1$ and $d_1 = nd_2$. As $\text{sgn}(d_1) = \text{sgn}(d_2)$, $m \geq 0$ and $n \geq 0$. As $d_1 = mnd_1$, $m = n = 1$. Thus $d_1 = d_2$. $\square$

Definition 5. <u>Relatively prime</u> $\iff$ $\gcd(a, b) = 1$

Theorem 6. *Suppose p is prime and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are nonzero, and $p|(ab)$ then $p|a$ or $p|b$.*

Proof. Consider $d = \gcd(p, a)$. Since $d|p$, we know $d = p$ or $d = 1$.
If $d = p$: By def of GCD, $d|p$ and $d|a$ ie. $p|p$ and $p|a$ so we're done.
If $d = 1$: Fix integers x and y such that $px + ay = 1$. $b = p(xb) + (ab)y$ as $p|p(xb)$ and $p|\underbrace{(ab)}_{\uparrow}y$, $p|b$.

$\square$

Theorem 7 (Unique Prime Factorization). *Suppose that $a > 1$ an integer, $m, n \geq 1$ and $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \ldots \leq p_m, q_1 \leq q_2 \leq \ldots \leq q_m$ are positive primes.*

Then $m = n$ and $p_i = q_i$ for all i.

Proof. By induction, it suffices to show $p_1 = q_1$. Suppose not. WLOG, assume $p_1 < q_1$. We know that $p_1 | a$ (as $p_1 | q_1 q_2 \ldots q_n$) Hence, $\exists i \leq n$ such that $p_i | q_i$. since p_i and q_i prime, $p_1 = q_i$. However, $p_1 < q_1 \leq q_i = p_1$ so $p_1 < p_2$ contradiction.
Hence $p_1 = q_1$ so by induction, we're done. $\square$

Lecture 3 (2016–01–15)

Teaser: Construct numbers of the form $a + b\sqrt{-5}$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Notion of addition still exists: (similar to complex numbers, coefficients remain integers)
Same with multiplication
Among these "numbers", 2 is irreducible. But, 2 is not prime, as $2 \not| (1 + \sqrt{-5})$ and $2 \not| (1 + \sqrt{-5})$, but $2 | \underbrace{(1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})}_{=6=2\cdot 3}$.

The Integers (mod n)

For today, $n > 0$.

DEFINITION 8. For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we say $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ iff $n \mid (b - a)$.

$\equiv$ is an *equivalence relation*

- Reflexivity: $a \equiv a$
- Symmetry: $a \equiv b \iff b \equiv a$
- Transitivity: $a \equiv b \wedge b \equiv c \implies a \equiv c$

PROOF. We know that $a \equiv b$ and $b \equiv c$, i.e. $n \mid (b - a)$ and $n \mid (c - b)$ We want $a \equiv c$, i.e., $n \mid (c - a)$

$$c - a = c + (-b + b) - a = \underbrace{(c - b) + (b - a)}_{n \text{ divides these}}$$

$\square$

DEFINITION 9. Denote by $\overline{a}$ or $[a]_n$ the equivalence class of a with respect to $\equiv \pmod{n}$ (I.e., The set $\{b \in \mathbb{Z} : a \equiv b \pmod{n}\} = \overline{\{a + kn : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}}$).

EXAMPLE. If $n = 2$, there are 2 equivalence classes:
$\overline{0} = \{\ldots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \ldots\} = \overline{2} = \overline{-36}$
$\overline{1} = \{\ldots, -3, -1, 1, 3, \ldots\}$

DEFINITION 10. Denote by $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ the collection of all $\equiv \pmod{n}$ equivalence classes.

E.g. $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}\}$
"Define" addition and multiplication on $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ as follows:

$$\overline{a} + \overline{b} = \overline{a + b}$$
$$\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{ab}$$

Makes sense, but we need to check that this definition makes any sense at all (make sure it's *well-defined*). Specifically, we need to make sure that the results of these operations doesn't depend on the representatives of the equivalence classes we chose (e.g. check that $\overline{x} + \overline{z} \equiv \overline{y} + \overline{z}$ if $x \equiv y$).
For brevity, we just show addition.

THEOREM 11. *$+$ and $\cdot$ are well-defined on $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$*

PROOF. (of $\cdot$) Assume that $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{n}$ and $b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{n}$.
Then, we want to show that $a_1 b_1 \equiv a_2 b_2 \pmod{n}$.
We know: $n \mid (a_2 - a_1)$ and $n \mid (b_2 - b_1)$.

We want: $n\,|\,(a_2b_2 - a_1b_1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} a_2b_2 - a_1b_1 &= a_2b_2 + (-a_1b_2 + a_1b_2) - a_1b_1 \\ &= (a_2b_2 - a_1b_2) + (a_1b_2 - a_1b_1) \\ &= \underbrace{(a_2 - a_1)b_2 + a_1(b_2 - b_1)}_{n \text{ divides these}} \end{aligned}$$

So, $n\,|\,(a_2b_2 - a_1b_1)$ as desired $\square$

Remark: This is a special case of a "quotient construction," in which you start with a set and an equivalence relation on it and operations on the set that "respect" the equivalence relations (i.e. equivalent inputs yield equivalent outputs)

Moar notes: Mutiplicative inverses are uncommon in the integers (only for 1 and -1). However, it's "more prevalent" in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ in the following sense:

THEOREM 12. *Suppose $n > 0$ is an integer, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\gcd(n, a) = 1$ (they're coprime). Then there is $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ab = 1 \pmod n$ (alternatively, $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{1}$)*

PROOF. Use Bezout's theorem (from last lecture) Take integers x, y such that $nx + ay = \gcd(a, n) = 1$. Then, $nx = 1 - ay$, so $n\,|\,(1 - ay)$, so $1 \equiv ay \pmod n$, Choose $b = y$ and we're done ($\overline{a}\overline{b} \equiv \overline{1}$). $\square$

Groups

DEFINITION 13. We say that $*$ is a binary operation on some set X if it is a function $*: X \times X \to X$. (That is, $*$ accepts two (ordered) inputs from X and it outputs one element of X.)

Remark: usually write $a * b$ for the output of $*$ on the input (a, b).

DEFINITION 14. A group is a set G with a binary operation $*$ (often abbreviated $(G, *)$) satisfying the following 3 axioms.

i. Associativity: $\forall a, b, c \in G : (a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$
ii. Identity: There is some $e \in G$ such that $\forall a \in G : a * e = e * a = a$
iii. Inversion: $\forall a \in G(\exists b \in G(a * b = b * a = e))$ (where e is as described in ii)

Lecture 4 (2016–01–20)

Recall the definition of a group.

DEFINITION 15. $(G, *)$ is an abelian (commutative) group if it is a group and

iv. $(G, *)$ is commutative $(\forall x, y \in G : x * y = y * x)$

Let $(G, *)$ be an arbitrary but fixed group.

PROPOSITION 16. *There is a unique identity element.*

PROOF. Suppose e and f both satisfy the second group property. we compute $e * f$ in two ways. $e * f = f$ and $e * f = e$, so by transitivity, $e = f$. $\square$

PROPOSITION 17. *If $a \in G$, a has a unique inverse.*

PROOF. Suppose that b and c are both inverses for a, $b * a = e$, $a * c = e$. Then,

$$b = b * e = b * (a * c) = (b * a) * c = e * c = c$$

$\square$

Notational Conventions.

- We will often just call a group G instead of $(G, *)$
- We abbreviate multiplication $(x * y)$ as $x \cdot y$ or just xy
- We will often write xyz for $(x * y) * z$ (due to associativity)
- When working with $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, we'll just use $+$
- We'll denote the (unique) identity of G by 1 or by e.
- We'll denote the inverse of x by x^{-1}
- Given an integer exponent $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $x \in G$, define

$$x^n = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^{n} x, & \text{if } n > 0 \\ e, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \prod_{i=1}^{-n} (x^{-1}), & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

Group Examples. “Definition:” $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} : a \in \mathbb{Z}, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\}$

(1) $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is an abelian group
(2) $(\mathbb{Z}, \times)$ is not a group
   Why? 2 has no inverse in $\mathbb{Z}$. $(\nexists x \in \mathbb{Z} : (2x = 1))$
(3) $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ is an abelian group
(4) $(\mathbb{Q}, \times)$ is not a group (0 has no inverse)
(5) $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$ is an abelian group.
(6) $\mathrm{GL}(n)$ is the set of matricies $A_{n\times n}$ for which $\det A_{n\times n} \neq 0$
(7) The set G of 2×2 matrices with determinant 1, along with matrix multiplication, is a group. Called the “special linear group.”

Closure:

$$\det\left(\left(\begin{smallmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{smallmatrix}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{smallmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{smallmatrix}\right)\right) = (bc - ad)(fg - eh) = 1$$

   i. Associativity: proof left for the reader.
   ii. Identity: $\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$
   iii. Given $a = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{smallmatrix}\right)$, take $a^{-1} = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{smallmatrix}\right)$, which you can verify is still in G.

   The group is *not* abelian. Take $a = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right), b = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$. Verify that $ab \neq ba$

(8) Suppose that $X \neq \emptyset$ is some set, and denote by S_X the set of bijections $f : X \to X$. Then $(S_X, \circ)$ is a group, where $\circ$ is function composition. ($(f \circ g)$ is the function $x \mapsto f(g(x))$.)
   Identity is $x \mapsto x$. Inversion $f^{-1} = f^{-1}$.

Symmetric Groups

Lecture 5 (2016–01–25)

Recall: if X is a set then S_X is the group of bijections on it.

Definition 18. S_X (or Sym_X) is called the symmetric group on X.

Note: $\circ$ is associative because $(f \circ g) \circ h$ is

$$x \overset{h}{\mapsto} (x) \overset{g}{\mapsto} g(h(x)) \overset{f}{\mapsto} f(g(h(x)))$$

Note: if $X = \{1, \ldots, n\}$, then we usually write $\underline{S_n}$ instead of $S_{\{1,\ldots,n\}}$. (Sometimes called symmetric group of degree n.)
Let's examine S_3:

elt.	1	2	3
e	1	2	3
a	1	2	3
b	1	3	2
c	2	3	1
d	3	1	2
f	3	2	1

The group has $6 = 3!$ elements.
Lets compute ab and ba
$ab = a \circ b$, looking it up in the table gives $ab = d$ and $ba = c$.
In particular, S_3 is not abelian.

Definition 19. A cycle is a permutation σ of the following form:

There is a sequence $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m$ of finitely many (distinct) elements of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ such that $\sigma(x_{i-1}) = x_i$, $\sigma(x_m) = x_1$, and $\sigma(y) = y$, for $y \notin \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$.
We call m the length of the cycle.

Ex. In S_3, $d = \frac{1\,2\,3}{3\,1\,2}$ is a cycle of length 3, with $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 3, x_3 = 2$.

Ex. In S_3, $a = \frac{1\,2\,3}{1\,3\,2}$ is a cycle of length 2, with $x_1 = 2, x_2 = 3$.

Notation. Given a cycle, we can efficiently denote it by $(x_1\, x_2\, x_3\, \ldots\, x_m)$.

Example. In S_3, $a = \frac{1\,2\,3}{1\,3\,2}$ would be written as (1 3 2).

Let's work in S_5.
$\varphi := \frac{1\,2\,3\,4\,5}{3\,4\,1\,5\,2}$ is not a cycle, but it is the "superposition" of two cycles (1 3) and (2 4 5). Thus, we may write $\varphi =$(1 3) $\circ$ (2 4 5), or (2 4 5)(1 3).

Theorem 20. *Every permuation in S_n may be written as the product of "disjoint" cycles. (The identity is the empty product).*

PROOF. Sketch: If youa have e then you're done trivially.
Otherwise, fix the least element x of $\{1,\dots,n\}$ "moved" by σ (i.e. $\sigma(x)\neq x$). Look at $x,\sigma(x),\sigma^2(x),\dots,\sigma^m(x)=\sigma^n(x)$, $n<m$. So, as σ is invertible, $\sigma^{m-n}(x)=x$, so x is part of a cycle. □

THEOREM 21. *Cycles can be written as a product of transpositions.*

General propositions on inversion in groups. Let G be a group, and let $a,b,x\in G$ be arbitrary.

- $(a^{-1})^{-1}=a$

  PROOF. Show that a is the inverse of a^{-1}. Follows from group axiom. □

- $(ab)^1=b^{-1}a^{-1}$

  PROOF. $(ab)(b^{-1}a^{-1})=(a(bb^{-1}))a^{-1}=(ae)a^{-1}=aa^{-1}=e$. Similarly, this works when we multiply from the other side. □

Lecture 6 (2016–01–27)

DEFINITION 22. The <u>cardinality</u> (or <u>order</u>) of a group G is the number of elements in it, denoted by $|G|$.

EXAMPLE.

- $|\mathbb{Z}|=\infty(=\aleph_0)$
- $|(\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z})|=5$
- $|S_4|=4!=24$

DEFINITION 23. Given a group G and $x\in G$, the <u>order</u> of x is the smallest integer $n>0$ such that $x^n=e$. If no such n exists, we say the order is ∞.
We denote by $|x|$ the order of x.

EXAMPLE. In $(\mathbb{Z},+)$: $|0|=1$, $|5|=\infty$.
In S_5: $|(1\ 3)|=2$, $|(2\ 4\ 5)|=3$, $|(1\ 3)(2\ 4\ 5)|=6$.

PROPOSITION 24. *If G is a* finite *group, every $x\in G$ has finite order. Moreover, $|x|\leq|G|$.*

PROOF. Say $|G|=k$. Consider the sequence $x^0,x^1,x^2,\dots,x^k$. There are $k+1$ items in the sequence. So $\exists m<n$ such that $x^m=x^n$. $x^{n-m}=x^nx^{-m}=x^mx^{-m}=e$. As $0<n-m\leq k$, it follows that $|x|\leq n-m\leq|G|$. □

Subgroups

Definition 25. Suppose $(G, *)$ is a group and $H \subseteq G$ some subset of G. We say H is a subgroup of G, written $H \leq G$ if $(H, *)$ happens to be a group, i.e., the following properties hold:

$*$ is a associative binary operator on H (i.e., it's closed) with inverses and an identity element.

Example.

- $\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Q}$ (under addition)
- Even integers $\leq \mathbb{Z}$ (under addition)
- $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$, where $n\mathbb{Z} := \{nx : x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
  Aside: every subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}$ is of the form $n\mathbb{Z}$
- $\{e, (1\ 2)(3\ 4), (1\ 3)(2\ 4), (1\ 4)(2\ 3)\} \leq S_4$.

Proposition 26. *(HW): $H \leq G$ iff*
(a) $H \neq \emptyset$ (nonempty)
(b) $\forall x, y \in H (xy \in H)$ (closed under product)
(c) $\forall x \in H (x^{-1} \in H)$ (closed under inverses)

Proposition 27. *Suppose G is a* finite *group. Then $H \leq G$ iff $H \neq \emptyset$ and $\forall x, y \in H$: $xy \in H$.*

Proof. We show that for $H \subseteq G$ (a) and (b) $\implies$ (c) (letters from proposition (26))
Fix $x \in H$. Since G is finite, $|x|$ is finite (in G). Say $|x| = n > 0$ $x^n = \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \ldots \cdot x}_{n \text{ times}} = e_G$.

Hence, $e_G \in H$.
Examine x^{n-1}.

$$x^{n-1} = \begin{cases} x^0 = e & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \ldots \cdot x}_{n \text{ times}} & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

But $x^{n-1} = x^{-1}$, since $x^{n-1}x = x^n = xx^{n-1} = e$. Thus, (c) holds for H. □

Remark. $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \ldots\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$, but $\mathbb{N} \nleq \mathbb{Z}$, despite satisfying (a) and (b).

(Left) Coset equivalence

Suppose G is a group and $H \leq G$ is a subgroup of G.

DEFINITION 28. We say $x \sim y \pmod H$ if $x^{-1}y \in H$.

PROPOSITION 29. $\sim \pmod H$ *is an equivalence relation.*

PROOF.

- Reflexivity ($x \sim x$):
  $x^{-1}x = e \in H$, so $x \sim x$.
- Symmetry ($x \sim y \implies y \sim x$):
  We know $x^{-1}y \in H$. H is closed under inversion, so $H \ni (x^{-1}y)^{-1} = (y^{-1}(x^{-1})^{-1}) = (y^{-1}x)$. Thus, $y \sim x$.
- Transitivity ($(x \sim y) \wedge (y \sim z) \implies (x \sim z)$):
  We know $x^{-1}y \in H$ and $y^{-1}z \in H$.
  Thus, $H \ni (x^{-1}y)(y^{-1}z) = x^{-1}ez = x^{-1}z$, so $x \sim z$.

$\square$

Lecture 7 (2016–01–29)

G is a group. $H \leq G$ a fixed subgroup of G.
Given $x, y \in G$, $x \sim y \pmod H$ iff

$$x^{-1}y \in H.$$

Last time: we showed it was an equivalence relation.
What are the equivalence classes of $\sim \pmod H$? We examine

$$\begin{aligned}
[x] &= \{y \in G : x \sim y \pmod H\} \\
&= \{y \in G : x^{-1}y \in H\} \\
&= \{y \in G : \exists h \in H(x^{-1}y = h)\} \\
&= \{y \in G : \exists h \in H(x(x^{-1}y) = xh)\} \\
&= \{y \in G : \exists h \in H(y = xh)\}
\end{aligned}$$

So, $[x]$ is exactly the set

$$\{xh : h \in H\}.$$

NOTATION. We write xH to abbreviate the set $\{xh : h \in H\}$.

DEFINITION 30. The equivalence class xH is called the <u>(left) coset of x with respect to H</u>.

NOTATION. The cyclic subgroup of x is denoted by $\langle x \rangle$.

Examples:

- $G = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $H = n\mathbb{Z}$ = multiples of n. So $H \leq G$. For $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, its coset is $\overline{x} = \{x + h : h \in n\mathbb{Z}\} = \{x + nk : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- $G = S_3 = \{e, (1\ 2), (1\ 3), (2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$ Take $H = \{e, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\} \leq S_3$ (the cyclic subgroup of $(1\ 2\ 3)$).

  So what are the cosets? $eH = \{eh : h \in H\} = \{h : h \in H\} = H$. (In general, eH is always just H). (Even more generally, $xH = H$ whenever $x \in H$.)

  Another coset is $(1\ 2)H$. Just compute $(1\ 2)h$ for each $h \in H$. Thus

$$(1\ 2)H = \left\{ \begin{array}{lll} (1\ 2) & e & = (1\ 2) \\ (1\ 2) & (1\ 2\ 3) & = (2\ 3) \\ (1\ 2) & (1\ 3\ 2) & = (1\ 3) \end{array} \right\} = \{(1\ 2), (2\ 3), (1\ 3)\}$$

  We note that $(1\ 2)H = (2\ 3)H = (1\ 3)H$, as each of those are in $(1\ 2)H$.
- $G = S_3$, $K = \langle (1\ 3) \rangle = \{e, (1\ 3)\} \leq G$. Analyze cosets mod K.

  Easy coset: $eK = K$.

  For the next coset, choose $(1\ 2\ 3)K$

$$(1\ 2\ 3)K = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} (1\ 2\ 3)\ e & = (1\ 2\ 3) \\ (1\ 2\ 3)\ (1\ 3) & = (2\ 3) \end{array} \right\} = \{(1\ 2\ 3), (2\ 3)\}$$

  Next coset after that is $(1\ 2)K = \{(1\ 2), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$.

  We note that the equivalence classes mod K partition S_3, Although they are not all subgroups.

In the last two examples, it wasn't a coincidence that each coset was of the same cardinality.

Proposition 31. *Suppose G is a group, $H \leq G$, and $x \in G$. Then $|xH| = |H|$.*

Proof. We establish a bijection between H and xH.
Define $\varphi : H \to xH$, $\varphi(h) = xh$.

Claim (1). φ is surjective.

Proof. Suppose $y \in xH$.
By definition of xH, $\exists h \in H$ such that $y = xh$. so $y = \varphi(h)$. □(C1)

Claim (2). φ is injective.

Proof. Suppose $h_1, h_2 \in H$ such that $\varphi(h_1) = \varphi(h_2)$.
By definition of φ, we have $xh_1 = xh_2$. Since G is a group, x has an inverse x^{-1}.
Thus, $x^{-1}(xh_1) = x^{-1}(xh_2) \implies h_1 = h_2$ as desired. □(C2)

Thus φ is a bijection, meaning $|xH| = |H|$ as desired. □(Prop.)

Theorem 32 (Lagrange). *Suppose that G is a finite group and $H \leq G$.
Then $|H|$ divides $|G|$.*

Proof. Left coset equivalence partitions G into k equivalence classes of size $|H|$.
Thus $|G| = k|H|$, as desired. □

Corollary 33. *Suppose that G is a finite group and $x \in G$. Then $|x|$ divides $|G|$.*

Proof. Consider $\langle x \rangle$ (the cyclic subgroup generated by x). $\langle x \rangle = \{e, x, x^2, \ldots, x^{n-1}\}$, where $|x| = n$. $|\langle x \rangle| = n$. Hence $n = |x|$ divides $|G|$. □

Lecture 8 (2016–02–01)

We go to the previous lecture for examples.
Consider $G = S_3, H = \{e, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\} \leq G$, $K = \langle (1\ 3) \rangle = \{e, (1\ 3)\} \leq G$.

Definition 34. If G is a group and $H \leq G$, denote by G/H (G "mod" H) the collection of (left) cosets of H in G.

Example.
(a) $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}$
(b) $S_3/H = \{eH, (1\ 2)H\}, \quad eH = H, \quad (1\ 2)H = \{(1\ 2), (2\ 3), (1\ 3)\}$
(c) $S_3/K = \{\{e, (1\ 3)\}, \{(1\ 2\ 3), 23\}, \{(1\ 2), (1\ 3\ 2)\}\}$

Normal Subgroups

Fundamental question: When is there "natural" group operation on G/H? Prototype: $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, $\overline{x} + \overline{y} = \overline{x+y}$.
Natural Attempt:

$$(g_1H)(g_2(H)) \stackrel{?}{=} (g_1g_2)H.$$

This works fine for (b) in the sense that if $g_1H = g_2H$ and $k_1H = k_2H$ then $(g_1k_1)H = (g_2k_2)H$ (verification left to reader).
But it *doesn't* work for (c). e and $(1\ 3)$ both represent eK. But they give *different* cosets after multiplication by $(1\ 2\ 3)$.

- $e(1\ 2\ 3) = (1\ 2\ 3)$
- $(1\ 3)(1\ 2\ 3) = (1\ 2)$.

In general, what would we need to have, in order to have multiplication in G/H be "well-defined?"
We want: $\underbrace{x_1 \sim x_2}_{x_1^{-1}x_2 = h \in H}$ and $\underbrace{y_1 \sim y_2}_{y_1^{-1}y_2 = k \in H} \implies x_1y_1 \sim x_2y_2$. Thus, we want $(x_1y_1)^{-1}(x_2y_2) \in H$.

$$(x_1y_1)^{-1}(x_2y_2) = (y_1^{-1}x_1^{-1})(x_2y_2) = y_1^{-1}(x_1^{-1}x_2)y_1k = \underbrace{y_1^{-1}hy_1}_{\in H}\underbrace{k}_{\in H} \in H$$

This expression motivates the definition of a normal subgroup

Definition 35. If G is a group, and $N \leq G$, we say N is normal if for all $n \in N$, and $g \in G$, we have $g^{-1}ng \in N$. We write this as $N \trianglelefteq G$.

Remark. For fixed $g \in G$, the map for $x \in G$

$$x \mapsto g^{-1}xg$$

is called conjugation by g.

Thus, N is normal if it is stable under all conjugation.

Theorem 36. *Let G a group $H \leq G$. Then the following are equivalent:*
(I) $(g_1H)(g_2H) = (g_1g_2)H$ is a well-definied group operation on G/H.
(II) $H \trianglelefteq G$.

(II) $\implies$ (I). $x_1^{-1}x_2 = h, y_1^{-1}y_2 = k$. (Exercise for the reader) $\square$

(I) $\implies$ (II). Suppose $h \in H$ and $g \in H$ want $g^{-1}hg \in H$.
Note: $e \sim h$ since $e^{-1}h = h \in H$.
By (I),we have $(eg)H = (eH)(gH) = (hH)(gH) = (hg)H$.
So, $gH = (hg)H$, meaning $g \sim hg$, so $g^{-1}hg \in H$. $\square$(thm)

Proposition 37. *If G is abelian, every subgroup is normal.*

Proof. Fix $H \leq G$, $h \in H$, $g \in G$. Then $g^{-1}hg = g^{-1}gh = h \in H$. $\square$

Proposition 38. *$G \trianglelefteq G$ and $\{e\} \trianglelefteq G$.*

Proof. $g^{-1}hg \in G$ and $g^{-1}eg = g^{-1}g = e \in \{e\}$. $\square$

Definition 39. For $A \subseteq G$, denote by $g^{-1}Ag$ the set $\{g^{-1}ag : a \in A\}$.
Called <u>the conjugate of A by G</u>.

Remark. Thus, N is normal iff $N \leq G$ and $\forall g \in G : g^{-1}Ng \subseteq N$.

Proposition 40. $N \trianglelefteq G \implies \forall g \in G : g^{-1}Ng = N$

Proof. Fix $n \in N$. we want $n \in g^{-1}Ng$. (This shows $N \subseteq g^{-1}Ng$.)
We know by $N \trianglelefteq G$ that $m = (g^{-1})^{-1}n(g^{-1}) \in N$. Then $m = gng^{-1}$.

Claim. $g^{-1}mg = n$

Proof. $g^{-1}(gng^{-1})g = \cancel{(g^{-1}g)}n\cancel{(g^{-1}g)} = n$ $\square$(Claim)

$\square$(Prop)

Homomorphisms

DEFINITION 41. Suppose G, H are groups and $\varphi : G \to H$ is a function. We say φ is a homomorphism if $\forall g_1, g_2 \in G : \phi(g_1 *_G g_2) = \varphi(g_1) *_H \varphi(g_2)$.

DEFINITION 42. Suppose $\varphi : G \to H$ is a homomorphism. The Kernel of ϕ is $\text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{g \in G : \varphi(g) - e_H\} = \varphi^{-1}(\{e_H\})$.

PROPOSITION 43. *Suppose $\varphi : G \to H$ is a homomorphism between groups. Then $K = \text{Ker}(\varphi) \trianglelefteq G$.*

PROOF.

CLAIM (1). $K \neq \emptyset$. In fact, $e_G \in K$.

PROOF. We know that e_G is the unique element of G such that $\forall g \in G(e_G g = g e_g = g)$. So, $\varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G e_G) = \varphi(e_G)\varphi(e_G) = \varphi(e_G)$ Multiplying both sides by $\varphi(e_G)^{-1} \in H$
So $\varphi(e_G) = e_H$. $\square$(C1)

CLAIM (2). $\forall g \in G \varphi(g^{-1}) = (\varphi(g))^{-1}$

PROOF. $\varphi(g^{-1})\varphi(g) = \varphi(gg^{-1}) = \varphi(e_G) = e_H$ By symmetry, $\varphi(g)\varphi(g^{-1}) = e_H$ $\square$(C2)

$\square$(Prop.)

Lecture 9 (2016–02–03)

Class Note

Midterm 1 is on Friday February 26th (in class)

Last time: showed that the kernel of a homomorphism is a subgroup.

PROPOSITION 44. $K \trianglelefteq G$.

PROOF. First we show $K \leq G$.

- $K \neq \emptyset$ as $e_G \in K$.
- $\forall g_1, g_2 \in K, g_1 g_2 \in K$:
  $\varphi(g_1 g_2) = \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2) = e_H e_H = e_H$ So $g_1 g_2 \in K$
- $\forall g \in H, g^{-1} \in K$:
  $\varphi(g^{-1}) = (\varphi(g))^{-1} = e_H^{-1} = e_H$
  So $g^{-1} \in K$

Thus, $K \leq G$. Next, we prove. $\forall k \in K, \forall g \in G$:

$$\varphi(g^{-1}kg) = \varphi(g^{-1})\varphi(h)\varphi(g) = (\varphi(g))^{-1} e_H \varphi(g) = e_H$$

Hence $g^{-1}kg \in K$. $\square$

DEFINITION 45. If $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism, and $h \in H$, the <u>fiber above h</u> is the set $\varphi^{-1}(\{h\})$.

Thus, $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$ is the fiber above e_H.

EXAMPLE.

- $\varphi(\mathbb{R}, +) \to (\mathbb{R}^+, \times)$, $\varphi(r) = \text{e}^r$ φ is a homomorphism since $\varphi(r+s) = \text{e}^{r+s} = \text{e}^r\text{s} = \varphi(r) \times \varphi(s)$

  $\text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{r \in R : \varphi(r) = 1\} = \{0\}$.

  The fiber above $s \in \mathbb{R}^+$: $\varphi(r) = s \iff \text{e}^r = s \iff r = \ln s$. Thus $\varphi^{-1}(\{s\}) = \{\ln s\}$.
- $\varphi : (\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}, \times) \to (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$, $\varphi(a + b\text{i}) = a^2 + b^2$.

  φ is a homomorphism (verification left to the reader).

  $\text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{a + b\text{i} : \varphi(a + b\text{i}) = 1\} = \{a + b\text{i} : a^2 + b^2 = 1\}$, which is the unit circle in the complex plane.

  Fix $r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, lets examine the fiber above r:

$$\{a + b\text{i} : a^2 + b^2 = r\} = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } r < 0 \\ \text{Circle of radius } \sqrt{r} & \text{if } r > 0 \end{cases}$$

- Start with a group G, normal $N \trianglelefteq G$. $\varphi : G \to G/N$, $\varphi(g) = gN$ is a homomorphism.

  PROOF. $\varphi(g_1g_2) = (g_1g_2)N = (g_1N)(g_2N) = \varphi(g_1)\varphi(g_2)$ □

  $\text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{g : \varphi(g) = eN\} = \{g : \varphi(g) = eN\} = N$.

This leads us to the realization that:

PROPOSITION 46. *$N \trianglelefteq G \iff N = \text{Ker}(\phi)$ for some homomorphism $\varphi : G \to H$, for any group H.*

Why do all fibres look alike?

PROPOSITION 47. *If $\phi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism and $h \in H$, then $\varphi^{-1}(\{h\})$ is either $\emptyset$ or gK for some $g \in G$, where $K = \text{Ker}(\varphi)$*

PROOF. If $\nexists g \in G$ such that $\varphi(g) = h$ then $\varphi^{-1}(\{h\}) = \emptyset$.
Else, fix some $g \in G$ such that $\varphi(g) = h$

CLAIM (1). $gK \subseteq \varphi^{-1}(\{h\})$

PROOF. Suppose $g' \in \varphi^{-1}(\{h\})$, want $g' \in gK$ (i.e. $\varphi(g') = h$). So, $\varphi(gg'^{-1}) = (\varphi(g))^{-1}\varphi(g') = h^{-1}h = e_H$. Hence $g^{-1}g' \in K$, so $g' \sim g \pmod{()K}$, so $g' \in gK$. □(C1)

CLAIM (1). $gK \supseteq \varphi^{-1}(\{h\})$

PROOF. Suppose $g' \in gK$, want $\varphi(g') = h$. Fix $k \in K$ such that $g' = gk$. $\varphi(g') = \varphi(gk) - \varphi(g)\varphi(k) = he_H = h$. □(C2)

Thus, $gK = \varphi^{-1}(\{h\})$, as desired. □(Prop.)

COROLLARY 48. *If $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism, the following are equal:*

- *φ is injective.*
- $\text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{e_G\}$

DEFINITION 49. A map $\varphi : G \to H$ between groups is an isomorphism if it is a bijective homomorphism. We often say $G \cong H$ if there exists an isomorphism $\phi : G \to H$.

Intuition: Isomorphic groups have the "same operation" on different sets.

EXAMPLE. Let $G = \{a, b\}$ $\begin{array}{c|cc} & a & b \\ \hline a & a & b \\ b & b & a \end{array}$ Then, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ via $\varphi : a \mapsto \overline{0}, b \mapsto \overline{1}$

We know $\varphi : G \to H$ is an isomorphism if it's a homomorphism, surjective, and $\mathrm{Ker}(\varphi) = \{e_G\}$.

Lecture 10 (2016–02–06)

DEFINITION 50. If $\varphi : G \to H$ is a function, denote by $\mathrm{Im}(\varphi)$, or $\varphi(G)$, or $\varphi[G]$ the image of G, i.e., the set $\{h \in H, \exists g \in G : \varphi(g) = h\}$.

EXERCISE. Prove: If $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism then $\varphi[G] \leq H$.

THEOREM 51 (First Isomorphism Theorem). *If $\varphi : G \to H$ is a group homomorphism, then $\varphi[G] \cong G/\mathrm{Ker}(\varphi)$.*

PROOF. Abbreviate $I := \varphi[G], K := \mathrm{Ker}(\varphi)$. We know for $h \in I$: $\varphi^{-1}(\{h\}) \neq \emptyset$. Hence, $\varphi^{-1}(\{h\}) = gK$ for some $gK \in G/K$. Then, define $\psi : I \to G/K$. $\psi(h) = \varphi^{-1}(\{h\}) = gK$.

CLAIM. $\psi : I \to G/K$ is a group isomorphism.

PROOF. We show that ψ is a bijective homomorphism in three parts:

(a) ψ is a homomorphism:
Fix $h_1, h_2 \in I$, want $\psi(h_1, h_2) = \psi(h_1)\psi(h_2)$. Fix g_1, g_2 such that $\varphi(g_1) = h_1, \varphi(g_2) = h_2$. Then $\varphi(g_1g_2) = h_1h_2$ by def of homomorphism. So, $\psi(h_1h_2) = g_1g_2K = (g_1K)(g_2K) = \psi(h_1)\psi(h_2)$. $\square$(a)

(b) ψ is a surjection:
Fix $gK \in G/K$. Want $h \in I$ with $\psi(h) = gK$ Want $h \in I$ with $\psi(h) = gK$. Choose $h \in \psi(g)$. Then by def, $g \in \varphi^{-1}(\{h\})$. Thus, $\psi(h) = \varphi^{-1}(\{h\}) = gK$. $\square$(b)

(c) ψ is an injection:
As remarked, it suffices to show

$$\mathrm{Ker}(\psi) = \{h \in I : \psi(h) = \underbrace{e_G K}_{=e_{G/K}}\} = \{h \in I : \varphi^{-1}(\{h\})\} = \{h \in I : \varphi(e_G) = h\} = \{e_H\}$$

$\square$(c)

$\square$(Claim)

$\square$(Thm)

DEFINITION 52. A group G is cyclic if $\exists x \in G : \langle x \rangle = G$. (Where $\langle x \rangle = \{x^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.)

PROPOSITION 53. *If G is a cyclic group, then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}$, or $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. As G is cyclic, take $x \in G$ such that $\langle x \rangle = G$. the map $\varphi : (\mathbb{Z}, +) \to G$, $\varphi(n) = x^n$. By hypothesis, $\langle x \rangle = G$. φ is surjective, so $\mathrm{Im}(\varphi) = G$. By first isomorphism theorem, $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/\mathrm{Ker}(\varphi))$.
Assume $\nexists n > 0$ such that $x^n = 1_G$ (i.e., the order of x in G is infinite.) Then $\mathrm{Ker}(\varphi) = \{n \cdot x^n = e_G\} = \{0\}$. Also $\mathbb{Z}/\{0\} \cong \mathbb{Z}$ (proof left as exercise). Thus, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Otherwise, fix the least $n > 0$ such that $x^n = e_G$(so $n = |x|$).
Check (exercise): $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi) = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} : x^m = e_G\} = n\mathbb{Z}$. Thus $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi) = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. □

COROLLARY 54. *Suppose $p > 1$ is prime and G is a group with $|G| = p$. Then $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$.*

PROOF. Fix any $x \in G$, $x \neq e^G$. $|x| \neq 1$. Additionally $|x|$ divides $|G|$. Thus $|x| = p$, as p is prime. Then $\langle x \rangle = G$. □

<u>Our next big motivational question</u>: Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, can we "classify" (or list) all groups of cardinality n (up to $\cong$)?
What we know so far:

n	Groups:
0	None
1	{e}
2	$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$
3	$\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$
4	$\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}, \ldots ?$
5	$\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$
6	$\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}, \ldots ?$

DEFINITION 55. G, H are groups, build a group of the <u>direct product</u> of G and H, denoted $G \times H$ with underlying set $\{(g, h) : g \in G, h \in H\}$, and <u>group operation</u> $(g_1, h_1) \cdot (g_2, h_2) = ((g_1 \cdot_G g_2), (h_1 \cdot_H h_2))$

PROPOSITION 56. *If $|G| = 2$ then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ or $G \cong ((\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}))$*

Lecture 11 (2016–02–08)

PROPOSITION 57. *Suppose G is a group. Then $G/\{e_G\} \cong G$ and $G/G \cong \{e_G\}$.*

PROOF. Consider the homomorphism $\varphi : G \to G$ with $\varphi(g) = g$ $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi) = \{g \in G : \varphi(g) = e_G\} = \{e_G\}$, and $\varphi[G] = G$.
Thus, the first isomorphism theorem states that $G/\operatorname{Ker}(G) \cong \varphi[G]$.
Next, consider the homomorphism $\psi : G \to G$, $\psi(g) = e_G$. Then $\operatorname{Ker}(\psi) = G$, $\operatorname{Im}(\psi) = \{e_G\}$.
By the first isomorphism theorem, $G/G \cong \{e_G\}$. □

Groups of cardinality 4.

PROPOSITION 58. *If G is a group with $|G| = 4$ then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ or $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$.*

We note that the above groups are not isomorphic because there is no element of order 4 in $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$.

PROOF. Possible orders for elements are 1, 2, or 4.
Two cases:

(1) $\exists g \in G, |g| = 4$ then $G = \langle g \rangle$, so (as proved last time) $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$.
(2) $\nexists g \in G, |g| = 4$:
   So $G = \{e_G, a, b, c\}$, meaning $|e_G| = 1$ and $|a| = |b| = |c| = 2$. So $\forall g \in G(g^2 = e_G)$. Hence G is abelian (hw). What is ab? It's not e_G as $a^{-1} = a \neq b$. It's not a since $b \neq e_G$. It's not b since $a \neq e_G$. So $ab = c$. Thus we may write the multiplication table.
   Verification that $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$ is left to the reader.

$\square$

Remark. More generally, if p prime and $|G| = p^2$ then $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z})$ or $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$.

Proposition 59. *Suppose G is a group and $|G| = 6$. Then $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z})$ or $G \cong S_3$.*

Proof. (Sketch)
If $\exists x \in G$ with $|x| = G$ then $G = \langle x \rangle \cong (\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z})$.
More subtly, if $\exists a, b \in G$ such that $|a| = 3$ and $|b| = 2$ and $ab = ba$ then $G \cong (\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z})$ (verification that $|ab| = 6$ left as an exercise to the reader).
WLOG, assume all non-identity elements have order 2 or 3.
Also, elements of order 3 come in pairs. $|x| = 3, |x^{-1}| = 3, x \neq x^{-1}$. So $|\{x : |x| = 3\}| \in \{0, 2, 4\}$ (as it must be even, and $|e_G| = 1 \neq 3$).
Possible order breakdowns: either (A): 1 2 2 2 2 2 2, (B): 1 2 2 2 3 3, or (C): 1 2 3 3 3 3.

Claim (1). (A) can't happen. Why? Assume otherwise, then $\forall x \in G(x^2 = e)$ so G is abelian, so $\{1, a, b, ab\}$ is a subgroup, but $4 \not| 6$. so by Lagrange's theorem, this cannot happen.

Claim (2). (C) also cannot happen. Why? Assume otherwise, then denote by x the unique element of order 2. THen $\forall g \in G, g^{-1}xg$ also has order 2. as

$$g^{-1}xgg^{-1}xg = g^{-1}x^2g = g^{-1}g = e$$

Thus, $g^{-1}xg$ has order 2. $\forall g \in G$, $g^{-1}xg = x \implies xg = gx$, contradiction.

Claim (3). (B) forces $G \cong S_3$. Proof of this follows from brute force considering the multiplication table.

$\square$(outline)

Group Actions

"Groups, like men, shall be judged by their actions." – Unknown

Definition 60. Suppose G is a group (not necessarily finite), and X is a set (also not necessarily finite). A group action of G on X is formally a function $a : G \times X \to X$ such that $\forall x \in X : a(e_G, x) = x$, and $\forall g, h \in G, x \in X : a(gh, x) = a(g, a(h, x))$.

Notation. We write actions like this: $G \curvearrowright X$ "G acts on X," and $g \cdot x := a(g, x)$.
The conditions then become $e_G \cdot x = x$ and $(gh) \cdot x = g \cdot (h \cdot x)$.

Equivalently, Instead of thinking about an action as a function of $(G \times X) \to X$, you can view it as a ("curried") function of $G \to (X \to X)$.
Say $g \mapsto \sigma_g$ where $\sigma_g \cdot (X \to X)$ is defined by $\sigma_g(x) = g \cdot x = a(g, x)$.

Claim. $\forall g \in G, \sigma_g$ is a permutation of X.

Proof. $\sigma_g \circ \sigma_{g^{-1}} = \sigma_{g^{-1}} \circ \sigma_g = \sigma_{e_G} (= x \mapsto x)$.
Why?

$$\sigma_g \circ \sigma_{g^{-1}}(x) = g \cdot (g^{-1} \cdot x) = (gg^{-1}) \cdot x = e_G \cdot x = x = \sigma_{e_G}(x)$$

Thus, σ_g is a bijection. $\square$

An action then induces a map $G \to S_X$, $g \mapsto \sigma_g$. Note that $\sigma_g \circ \sigma_h = \sigma_{gh}$.

Property 61. Actions of G on X correspond to homomorphisms $G \to S_X$.

Example. Of actions:

(1) $X = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}, S_n \curvearrowright X$ The action is $\sigma \cdot x = \sigma(x)$.
More generally, if $H \leq S_n$, we get an analogous action.

(2) Let G be the 2×2 invertible matrices over $\mathbb{R}$ under the operation of matrix multiplication.
$G \curvearrowright \mathbb{R}^2$ (acts on the Euclidean plane) by applying the matrices' corresponding linear transformation to the vector in $\mathbb{R}^2$. (Verification left to the reader.)

(3) $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$ X is a circle. $G \curvearrowright X$ r "rotates the circle r radians c.c.w."

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